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ABSTRACT

At the time of independence in 1966, education in Lesotho was inadequate in scope, in quantity, and--from the African perspective, in quality as well. Only the few who received education outside Lesotho were treated as "first class Basotho." After independence, the role of education was seen to be the production of two kinds of indigenous manpower--administrators to run the civil service and scientists and technicians. With the help of outside experts, educational policies were developed and codified in a series of three Five-Year Development Plans. This paper reviews the progress of educational development according to the development plans and evaluates their implementation. Some programs have been successfully implemented, including those for book supply, classroom building, non-formal education, the establishment of educational associations, and the replacement of small church-run teacher training colleges by a national college. The country experienced a steady increase in the number of students and schools. However, the "push out" rate is so high that only 14 percent of primary school entrants continue on to secondary school. Other problems include nonattainment of the goal of universal primary education, an apparent decline in educational quality, teacher shortages, insufficient training in the English language, lack of employment opportunities even for graduates, and practical studies that are not relevant to rural economic activities. (Author)

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World Bank Discussion Papers
Africa Technical Department Series

Implementing Educational Policies in Lesotho

T. Sohl Thelejani

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Implementing Educational Policies in Lesotho

T. Sohl Thelejani

The World Bank
Washington, D.C.

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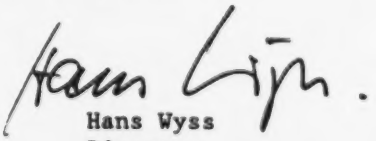
FOREWORD

The decades of the 1960s and 1970s witnessed dramatic quantitative growth in African education systems. Beyond expanding educational places, many African countries pronounced intentions to "reform" their educational systems, by adjusting the length of education cycles, altering the terms of access to educational opportunity, changing the curriculum content, or otherwise attempting to link the provision of education and training more closely to perceived requirements for national socio-economic development. Strong economic growth performances of most African economies encouraged optimistic perceptions of the ability of governments to fulfill educational aspirations which were set forth in educational policy pronouncements.

Sadly, the adverse economic conditions of the 1980s, combined with population growth rates which are among the highest in the world meant that by the early 1980s, education enrollment growth stalled and the quality of education at all levels was widely regarded as having deteriorated. In recognition of the emerging crisis in African education, the World Bank undertook a major review to diagnose the problems of erosion of quality and stagnation of enrollments. Emerging from that work was a policy study, Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: Policies for Adjustment, Revitalization, and Expansion, which was issued in 1988. That study does not prescribe one set of education policies for all of Sub-Saharan Africa. Rather, it presents a framework within which countries may formulate strategies tailored to their own needs and circumstances. In fact, a central point which is stressed in the study is the need for each country to develop its own country-specific education strategy and policies, taking into account the country's unique circumstances, resource endowment and national cultural heritage.

The crucial role of national strategies and policies cannot be over-emphasized. In recognition of the centrality of sound policies as a basis for progress, in 1987 the Bank's Education and Training Department (the relevant unit responsible for the policy, planning and research function at that time) commissioned a set of papers by African analysts on the comparative experiences of eight Anglophone Eastern and Southern African countries, each of which had developed and issued major education policy reforms or pronouncements. The papers give special attention to deficiencies in the design and/or implementation processes that account for the often-yawning gaps between policy intentions and outcomes. The lessons afforded by the eight African case studies, along with a broader- perspective assessment of educational policy implementation, are presented in the papers by George Psacharopoulos (the overall manager of the set of studies) and John Craig. The eight country case studies are presented in companion reports.

By disseminating this set of studies on the implementation of African educational policies, it is hoped that the lessons of experience will be incorporated into the current efforts by African countries to design and implement national policies and programs to adjust, revitalize and selectively expand the education and training systems which prepare Africa's human resources, the true cornerstone of African development.



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ABSTRACT

At the time of independence in 1966, education in Lesotho was inadequate in scope, in quantity, and -- from the African perspective, in quality as well. Only the few who received education outside Lesotho were treated as "first class Basotho." After independence, the role of education was seen to be the production of two kinds of indigenous manpower -- administrators to run the civil service and scientists and technicians. With the help of outside experts, educational policies were developed and codified in a series of three Five-Year Development Plans. This paper reviews the progress of educational development according to the development plans and evaluates their implementation. Some programs have been successfully implemented, including those for book supply, classroom building, non-formal education, the establishment of educational associations, and the replacement of small church-run teacher training colleges by a national college. The country experienced a steady increase in the number of students and schools. However, the "push out" rate is so high that only 14 percent of primary school entrants continue on to secondary school. Other problems include non-attainment of the goal of universal primary education, an apparent decline in educational quality, teacher shortages, insufficient training in the English language, lack of employment opportunities even for graduates, and practical studies that are not relevant to rural economic activities.

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1. AN HISTORICAL ACCOUNT

Lesotho became independent on October 4, 1966. Unlike most African countries, which had once been colonies, Lesotho had been a protectorate. This meant that its indigenous people received minimum help from their protector, especially in matters affecting them exclusively, such as the education of their children.

Lesotho has one indigenous language, Sesotho. English is used in official circles in the administrative centers. The people belong to one tribe, with a number of clans, and owe allegiance to one King.

The population of Lesotho is about 1.5 million with a growth rate of about 2.3 per cent. The school population in 1980 was about 280,000. This number includes herdboys who attend school only half of the expected time.

Education at Independence

Formal education was introduced to the people of Lesotho by French missionaries, who later were joined by English missionaries. The missionaries owned, managed and dominated the administration of education at the time of independence. Except for a few community and government controlled schools, the missionaries together controlled 95 percent of the schools.

Before independence, education was influenced by a number of factors.

Firstly, the British protectors had no pronounced interest in the education of the Basotho, except on occasion to provide grants, pay some of the teachers and supervise programs borrowed from elsewhere.

Secondly, being part of the Commonwealth, citizens of Lesotho were free to go to neighboring South Africa for their education. In fact, educational programs and examinations were controlled by South Africa until 1953, when the South African regime introduced what it called "Bantu Education." Neither the Basotho nor the Protecting Power wanted any part of that. Lesotho's only option was to develop its own educational programs.

Thirdly, although, as in other African countries, political awareness in Lesotho was carving the way to independence, education remained geared to creating an elite class of civil servants. Technical, agricultural and nursing education were for those who failed in academics. Political awareness, evident in the schools, was nurtured by the philosophy -- "Give us political freedom and everything will follow."

Finally, the only institution of higher learning was the Roman Catholic University College. Like the school system, it was interested in producing "Christian leaders," among whom, it was hoped, some would be Roman Catholics. The college can be credited with starting the process of bringing equal quality of education to all races. It was there that the South African white superiority complex, which could be felt in government circles even in Lesotho, came under systematic attack.

By the time of independence, any parent could send a child to primary school, but there was no legal obligation to do so. Several groups of children were educationally disadvantaged. They included herdboys, whose labor was needed, and girls. Many parents felt secondary education for girls was a bad investment, since they would soon be married. A third disadvantaged group were the disabled children.

Fees charged to parents played a role in keeping some children out of school. In addition, secondary schools could not accommodate all who graduated from the primary level. There was a fairly high dropout rate in primary school and between the primary and secondary levels. Dropping out continued in secondary school, especially between Junior Secondary and Senior Secondary, that is, between Junior and Senior Certificates.

In summary, education at independence was inadequate in scope, in quantity, and -- as viewed by Africans -- in quality as well. Only the few who received education outside Lesotho were treated as "first class Basotho." This was especially true for those who went to Great Britain to obtain what was considered a "better education."

Education after Independence

At the time of independence in 1966, the role of education was seen to be the production of high level manpower amongst the indigenous Basotho. Two areas received high priority -- the education of administrators to run the civil service, and the training of scientists who were meant to push the newly independent country into the modern technological world. Subject areas and programs were chosen with these goals in mind. As was common during those days, donor agencies and the UN system helped identify the programs and supplied "experts" and funds. The focus was on curriculum development. National activities became attached to international activities, such as the African Primary Science Programme (later to become the Science Education Programme for Africa) and the African Social Studies Programme.

In time, the efforts of the UN system and other donor agencies slowed, and a newcomer appeared on the scene -- the World Bank -- bringing with it a new watchword -- "self reliance." The Bank concentrated on providing facilities to enable schools to carry out practical programs in areas such as agriculture, home economics, woodworking and metal work.

However, no fundamental changes were made in the way the schools were run. The churches, especially the Roman Catholic Church (RC), the Lesotho Evangelical Church (LEC), and the Anglican Church still managed the schools through school secretariats. Indeed, as the independence mentality wore off, the presence of the Ministry of Education in the schools, through regular visits by inspectors, diminished. The Government instead tried to bring the parents into the management of schools by encouraging the creation of school boards and committees. These have been more successful in LEC schools than in those of more hierarchical churches. But they still suffer from teething problems, involving a lack of understanding of their roles -- even where they seem successful. Typically, a secondary school is managed by a trained individual, the principal. He may be assisted by a board or committee. In a primary school, the manager is normally the local parish priest. School committees, where they exist, generally do not work well with the teachers.

As is true in the management of schools, the society itself still is conservative on the role of education. Despite talk about the importance of

teaching practical skills, academic excellence is considered the hallmark of an educated man. This attitude may be due to a lack of guidance and counseling and to the fact that the opportunities to which a practical education may lead are not readily visible to the public. There are too few success stories of people gifted in practical skills. Indeed, because there is a shortage of arable land, people who graduate from agricultural colleges often must limit their expectations to employment in government extension services -- which still are based on pre-independence farming practices.

It could be argued that the practical skills programs, as they are presently conceived, are not suitable for a country like Lesotho -- small, mainly rural and mountainous, made up of small households, well endowed with water but with a fragile environment in both physical and social terms, and which faces the need to make social changes to fit itself into the modern technological world. The practical programs have not taken these factors into account and, in fact, seem to have been created in a social and environmental vacuum. Also, practical subjects are electives in schools and are not required for entrance into technical or agricultural colleges. The agricultural and technical colleges find their recruits among those who fail in academics. This notion extends to the teaching profession. The advent of modern political life has brought the civil servant and the politician into the foreground. Teaching has come to be regarded as a second class profession. Because of the respect teachers traditionally commanded in villages, politicians, often working through civil servants, found it necessary to demonstrate their superiority to teachers and in the process lowered the status of the teachers in the public eye.

As mentioned, programs were identified with the help of experts, and subject areas were selected for improvement. Science, mathematics, and English were to be improved in both curriculum and teaching. These activities were dominated by foreign experts and backed by substantial funds But these experts faded from the scene and, in absence of objective evaluation, conditions regressed.

There were, however, some innovations that rocked the educational scene. One of these was automatic promotion. This caused so much confusion that it was officially discontinued in 1980 and replaced by continuous assessment.

The latter now exists in name only. The examination given at the end of primary school was also changed. Multiple choice questions were introduced, and the marking system was standardized. When competing smaller Church Training Colleges were abolished in 1975, the training of primary level teachers was turned over to a single government institution. The only university produced the graduate teachers.

After its independence, Lesotho, like other African countries, experienced a steady increase in the number of students and schools. A number of factors, apart from overall population growth, were responsible:

a) In 1970, the duration of primary education was shortened from eight to seven years. That year, the number of graduates at the end of the cycle doubled. Those children who would normally be accommodated in secondary schools were put in what were supposed to be three-year continuation classes to give them survival skills. Parents saw these as new secondary schools. On this basis, the number of secondary schools increased by at least one-tenth;

b) Once the churches were relieved of their responsibilities for training teachers, they concentrated on secondary education. They filled the former Teacher Training Colleges with secondary pupils. Meanwhile, from the outset, the new college for teachers began increasing the numbers of teachers trained as well as the improving the quality of education;

c) More and more jobs required higher qualifications. Previously, primary education had been a minimum requirement for employment in the police and prisons. This was raised to Junior Certificate. For nursing and technical education, the requirement was raised to Senior Certificate;

d) Among the Basotho, the need for child labor in agriculture diminished due to the lack of fields and animals. The school was the only institution to keep children busy and prepare them for life;

e) There was a recognition in the society that education is necessary for modern living and a good job. Most parents wanted their children to be educated -- especially boys, who were thought of as a good social investment for a family. Unfortunately, counselling as to the type of education needed in a modernizing country has been lacking, even at the University level. The University can still be described as a liberal arts school without faculties of agriculture, technology or health sciences.

2. LANDMARKS IN EDUCATIONAL POLICY

The Period of Independence

The legal framework of education in Lesotho has been influenced by a number of reports and acts. For a more complete list, see Table 1 (Appendix), which begins with 1963, although independence did not come until 1966.

The most important measures were:

Acts

a) The Royal Charter which established the joint University of Basutoland, Bechuanaland Protectorate and Swaziland. This partnership was unceremoniously severed by the 1975 National University Act by which Lesotho established her own National University;

b) The Education Order No. 32 of 1971 spelled out the powers of the Minister and the role of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in the education process from primary school to tertiary education (excepting the University). The Education Order (amendment) Act of 1983 extended inter alia the powers of the Minister with respect to pre-school education and to the establishment of a local examinations council;

c) The Teaching Service Commission Act of 1983 codified the synchronization of the Government and NGO's in the employment of teachers.

Commission/Dialogue Reports

In 1973, Education in Transition, the report of the Polytechnic Mission, helped the Government articulate the development of middle level manpower by improving the existing facilities and laying a basis for seeking donor support.

In 1978, an "Education Dialogue" led to the Educational Policy Guidelines of 1981 and the Education Sector Survey Task Force which published its report in 1982. These reports also led to the Educational Manifesto of 1984.

Education in the Development Plans

The First Five-Year Development Plan (1970-75) was concerned with improving the quality and quantity of education , especially at the primary and secondary levels. It also urged that training be related to specific development projects.

The Second Five-Year Development Plan (1975/76-1979/80), in addition to building on the plans of the first, focused on the need to develop technical and vocational education and to coordinate non-formal education. The Government also expressed a desire to exercise more control and supervision. In practice, it has so far failed in both control and supervision. Its influence in both areas has become weaker.

A Career Guidance Office was opened in 1973. People were trained, but due to changes of authorities, they left the office. One of those trained is staffing the Division of Guidance and Counseling in the Institute of Education of the National University. This Institute concerns itself with research and development in formal education.

The Third Plan (1980-1985) was to concentrate on basic primary education, since only 14 per cent of children who enter primary school proceed to secondary education. This was to be done through the improvement of school facilities and active curriculum development. At the secondary level, the process of making education more practical was to be intensified. Non-formal education was to be consolidated. At the tertiary level, teacher education and technical education were to be consolidated. Nothing was said about practical studies at the University level.

Studies and Reviews of Lesotho's Education

Reacting to perceived needs, the Lesotho Government has from time to time asked for special missions to carry out studies. Sometimes these missions were deemed to be necessary before Donor Agencies could commit themselves. Two such missions stand out:

a) The 1973 mission's report on the development of polytechnics influenced the policy on technical and vocational education, even in secondary schools;

b) The consultant's report of 1977, although meant to provide information required to facilitate donor funding, had effects that were even more far reaching. It has influenced educational development at all levels by successfully recommending an "Education Dialogue." This the famous 1978 Palavar (Pitso to the Basotho).

The Government of the Kingdom of Lesotho has found it necessary to set up commissions to advise it on the future of the educational process. Two such commissions are particularly noteworthy:

a) Soon after the failure of the Study Commission of 1976, acting on the advice of the 1977 consultant's report, the Lesotho Government organized a nationwide dialogue on education. This started in Chief's Courts in villages and culminated in a national Education Dialogue in Maseru. This was a new kind of commission directly involving people at the grassroots level. They were participants rather than just a target group for a "learned commission." The process resulted in recommendations, some of which influenced a number of developments in education;

b) Following the recommendations above, the Lesotho Government decided on an Education Sector Survey Task Force. Its report (1982) is a well documented volume. Recommendations have been made on all aspects of the education process.

Policy Statements of the Ministry of Education

From time to time, circulars and policy statements are made by the Ministry of Education. The following are worth mention:

a) It was decided to shorten the primary school course by one year, from eight to seven years. In 1970 the then Standard VII and Standard VIII wrote the same examination. The resulting double output was accommodated in continuation classes attached to selected primary schools. These were misunderstood by certain communities and were seen as new secondary schools. This was communicated to the public through circulars;

b) In 1981, the Minister of Education made a statement entitled Educational Policy Guidelines. This paper was distributed widely. It set out national education policies and discussed the goals of education, including the nature of education programs and educational administration.

3. IMPLEMENTATION

In an attempt to remedy problems in education and enhance educational development, to provide education for all, and to respond to public needs while meeting the developmental needs of Lesotho, a number of plans have been discussed. However, there is always a gap between plans and their implementation. The reasons for this are outlined below. A few plans have been successful, among these:

a) Small Teacher Training Colleges operated by churches have been replaced by the National Teacher Training College;

b) An efficient non-formal Distance Teaching Center and a Curriculum Development Center have been set up;

c) A book supply unit has been set up, and a program to build classrooms was launched;

d) The Lesotho Educational Research Association (for formal education) and the Lesotho Association (for non-formal education) have been formed.

But there are major gaps, which cause weaknesses. The main ones are as follows:

a) The "push out" rate in schools is so high that, even now, only 14 percent of children who enter primary school proceed to secondary education. This is so in spite of the fact that most children are only 12 or 13 years old by the end of primary. The few non-formal educational institutions that exist prefer older children;

b) Although access to primary school is open to all, universal primary education has not been achieved. The reasons are thought to be both social and economic;

c) There has been an apparent decline in the quality of education. The indicators are bad examination results, an increase in unruly student

behavior as evidenced by frequent strikes in secondary schools, an increase in schoolgirl pregnancies, bad language in general, and the high push out rate;

d) Even where practical studies have been done, they are not related to rural economic activities.

Problems Experienced in Implementation

When comparing the present situation with the educational scene before independence, one cannot fail to be impressed by the increase in the number of students and schools, particularly at the secondary level. As indicated above, the quality of education is suspect. Although there is no empirical evidence, there are a number of obvious factors behind the problems in implementation.

Poor Economy

Lesotho has a very weak economy. According to the Third Development Plan:

> Lesotho's balance of payments position illustrates the extent of the country's structural dependence on the rest of the world, South Africa, in particular. Lesotho has a large and growing deficit in the balance of trade, which is mainly financed by remittances from migrant workers (62 per cent), Customs Union revenue (17 per cent), and aid inflows (13 per cent). The trade deficit grew from M75.1 million in 1974/75 to M189.9 million in 1977/78, when it was 8 per cent larger than total GDP. For any improvement in the educational system Lesotho relies mainly on foreign aid and loans from foreign development banks, both of which increase its national debt.

Population Growth

Although the population growth of 2.3 percent per year does not seem excessive, it is high for a poor economy which seems to be declining, particularly in the area of agricultural production. The churches, which have provided facilities for schools, have now turned to the communities for help in maintaining them and in making necessary additions. This is done by charging fees. In the primary schools, fees have varied from 5 maloti to 15 maloti per child, excluding book fees and uniforms. With a number of children

to support (the national average is five) parents find this a burden. In the secondary schools, the expenses are about 10 to 15 times this figure.

Employment for School Leavers

The educational system in Lesotho is characterized by a very high wastage rate. At one stage or another, the "push-outs" will need jobs. In the past, migrant labor to South African mines have absorbed many unskilled people as well as many skilled in the technical and teaching professions. The government has been the largest employer of skilled people. Although the parastatals and the private sector are employing some, employment of school leavers in Lesotho is a critical problem. Even graduates are under-employed or unemployed.

The school system has failed to produce entrepreneurs ready to get involved in manual work, especially in intensive, small scale agriculture. This is tragic in a country as potentially rich and as well endowed with fresh water resources as is Lesotho. Lesotho's economic future seems to be in the direction of developing agro-industries. This implies that education should be reformed accordingly.

Curriculum

By independence, the need was felt to reform the educational system in a direction different from that taken in South Africa --geared instead to the needs and aspirations of Lesotho. A number of subject panels chaired by University persons were formed to draw up syllabuses. By 1980, partly as a result of the national Pitso, a Curriculum Development Center was established. People were trained overseas to staff it. The system of subject panels, now chaired by education officers, still exists. Educational development in this country has been influenced by outside experts and nationals and by developments both overseas and in Africa. Programs such as the Nuffield Project, ASSP, SEPA, and ACO have made their contributions. The result, however, has been a patchwork rather than education that is relevant.

Shortage of Teachers

Although there are degree programs geared to produce large numbers of teachers (almost all students in the Humanities follow a Bachelor of Arts degree in Education), there is a chronic shortage of teachers. It is worst in the sciences, in spite of special programs. A brain drain to South Africa, where salaries are very high, has contributed to the shortage. At the primary level, the country is simply unable to employ all the qualified teachers, more so because through in-service of one kind or another teachers are able to improve themselves and gain entitlement to higher salaries.

Languages

Officially the medium of instruction is Sesotho, until the fourth grade, at which stage instruction is supposed to be in English. In reality, a mixture of languages often is used until secondary schools. Students have very little chance use English. This is partly blamed for the low standard in English, as shown by a high percentage of failure at the Senior Certificate level. The University has special programs to improve the communication skills of new entrants.

4. A CRITICAL APPRAISAL

The educational system in Lesotho is characterized by a high wastage rate. Although access to primary school is open, the dropout rate is high. It is also very high between primary, junior secondary, senior secondary, and tertiary institutions. The causes have not been investigated. Though there may be a number of factors, economic, social, as well as professional reasons are behind the high rate. Schools are more a chore for children places they enjoy.

Articulation between the formal and the non-formal sectors of education is weak. The non-formal aspects of child development, such as cultural values (spirituality, morality behavior, and traditional esthetics) are sidelined by the formal educational system. With a good percentage of parents being migrants, a vacuum is being created in non-formal education. When learners leave formal schooling prematurely, non-formal education should provide the "finishing touches." But this kind of articulation is lacking.

The introduction of practical subjects is an attempt to make education relevant. Although there is a will to introduce these subjects into the curriculum, the effort lacks philosophical guidelines. The practical subjects still take second place behind purely academic pursuits. They are regarded by learners and parents as second rate. Indeed, they are not even part of the higher education scene.

One social factor that has influenced attitudes towards learning is the perception that education leads to white collar jobs. Modernization is measured by industries, mostly of the transnational type. Agriculture is not seen as a modern undertaking.

Localization is good but must be accompanied by efficiency based on a "best man for the job" approach, especially in the social services. Some locals do not seem to take advantage of their knowledge and understanding of the local social milieu. Those in high positions tend to divorce themselves from grassroots concerns and create a "higher class of concerns" focusing on artificial western luxuries.

APPENDIX

Landmarks in Education Policy-Making in Lesotho 1966-1985

Table 1

Landmarks in Education Policy-Making in Lesotho 1966-1985

Year	Event/Policy Reform	Remarks
1963	Royal Charter of 1963 establishing the University of Basutoland, Bechuanaland Protectorate, and Swaziland.	The objectives of the university were to provide education, "Godly learning," and research to promote the moral, cultural, and economic well being of Botswana, Lesotho, and Swaziland.
1970	Lesotho First Five-Year Development Plan 1970/71 - 1974/75.	The policy was to concentrate government efforts in primary education coupled with the expansion of secondary education.
1971	The Education Order No. 32.	This order was meant to provide for the establishment, administration and control of education in Lesotho. It is interesting to note that in spelling out the objectives of the order, which were meant to ensure the education of every child, including the handicapped, these were watered down by being conditioned to "circumstances permitting." Although the Minister and Permanent Secretary were given substantial powers by the order, the role of the Churches is quite clear. They even had the right to use their own religious syllabus in their schools.
1973	Education in Transition. The Report of the Polytechnic Mission.	This mission attempted to show the importance of middle level manpower. The report tried to reduce the gravity of the education process in higher education in favor of the polytechnics.

Year	Event/Policy Reform	Remarks
1975	Second Five Year Development Plan.	A number of good observations were made in this report. There was, however, one major pitfall: it advocated public ownership of schools. This was unacceptable to the Basotho, and the report died a natural death.
1975/6	National University Act 1975 and the 1976 National University Act 1976.	The functions of the University, as prescribed by the act, are the usual for any university, except for the stipulation that education must serve the students and facilitate research to solve problems primarily in Lesotho but also in Southern Africa.
1976	Report of the Education Study Commission.	The expressed aims of this plan were to improve quality in the primary schools, improve mathematics and science education, expand practical studies, develop technical and vocational education, coordinate non-formal education, and strengthen government control and supervision of schools.
1977	Primary School Curriculum change in Lesotho.	This was a consultant's report aimed at facilitating the inflow of money from donor agencies into Lesotho's primary education. In the process it touched on aspects of primary education with policy implications for the whole educational system.
1978	Report on views and recommendations of the Basotho Nation regarding the future of education in Lesotho.	Acting on the recommendations of the 1977 report, the Ministry of Education consulted the nation, using the traditional systems of communication (pitsos, or palavars).

Year	Event/Policy Reform	Remarks
1980	The Third Five Year Development Plan 1980-1985.	This plan is a follow-up of the views expressed in the "Education Dialogue." The emphasis was to be on basic education, physical facilities, the training of teachers, and improving the link between practical skills and market needs.
1980	Report of the Teaching Service Unit Review Committee.	One of the major recommendations of the Committee was that the Lesotho Government should establish a Teaching Service Commission.
1981	Educational Policy Guidelines.	This was basically a policy statement by the Minister of Education and was based on the critical appraisal by Cabinet of the views expressed in 1978.
1982	The Education Sector Survey, Report of the Task Force.	The Task Force was established by Cabinet to prepare a policy document in the field of education that could guide government in planning an education system appropriate to the development needs of Lesotho.
1983	The Education Order (amendment) act 1983.	It is essentially like that the 1971 Order, but extends the powers of the Minister to make regulations or standards and to control and administer pre-schools and institutions of special learning. These powers were also extended to the control of school funds collected by the management. It also gave the Minister powers to establish a Lesotho Examinations Council.

Year	Event/Policy Reform	Remarks
1984	a) Secondary and High Schools in Lesotho - Strategies for improvement.	This is a report by a Ministry of Education team which investigated how policies recommended by the Task Force could be applied at the school level.
	b) An Educational Manifesto related to the proposed five-year comprehensive programme for Secondary and High Schools in Lesotho.	This is a report on the details of managing a program for five-year post-primary, pre-tertiary education, a move away from the usual three year Junior Certificate which is based on the old Cape of Good Hope model followed by a two year Cambridge Overseas Senior Certificate Programme, a process that lacks synchronization.
1985	Report of the sub-committee which examined the recommendations made in an Educational Manifesto.	This is the report of a working committee which considered each of the recommendations in the Manifesto to determine whether or not they can be implemented.

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